〈書 評〉

# Linguistics

Ed. by Archibald A. Hill. Voice of America Forum Lectures.
U.S.I.S. 1969. P. 317. Reviewed by Yang-Seo Pae (Myung-ji College)

This book is an answer to a question: "What is linguistics, and what on earth is it good for?" But it still deserves the attention of professional linguists because it deals with practically all facets of modern linguistics.

Chapter 1, contributed by William G. Moulton, apparently goes beyond the scope of its title "The Nature and History of Linguistics." The writer first explains how sound and meaning are connected so as to yield language, giving an example of a typical speech event in which a speaker says something and understood by a hearer. He posits eleven different stages (p. 5): semantic encoding, grammatical encoding, phonological encoding, sending, transmission, receiving, phonological decoding, grammatical decoding, semantic decoding. Then he introduces various fields of linguistics: lexicography, semantics, grammar, phonology, articulatory phonetics, acoustic phonetics, linguistic geography, social linguistics, synchronic and diachronic linguistics, comparative linguistics. Finally he briefly sketches the history of the study of language beginning with Panini through Noam Chomsky.

The subject matter of this chapter might have been treated better if written under two separate chapters, the fields of linguistics and the history of linguistics respectively.

Chapter 2, entitled "Phonology: Phonemics and Acoustic Phonetics," is written by Martin Joos, the editor's personal friend and admirer. His description of phonemics using a sample sentence, "Please try to remember" is not illuminating, if it meant to be understood by lay readers. He could have been in a better position if proceeded from phoneme or contrastive sounds in English. His abrupt introduction of the internal open juncture will make the uninitiated audience puzzled. His description of acoustic phonetics is also not clear though he was actually the first acoustic phonetician in North America.

Chapter 3, contributed by Carlton T. Hodge, deals with morphology and syntax. The first section, which deals with morphology, is quite clear and orderly, citing examples from English, Turkish, Tagalog and other African languages. But his exotic examples had better be dispensed with for lay readers. Then he introduces the syntax part beginning with the neo-Bloomfieldian pair test, which is known as phonological grammar (p. 40).

Without even mentioning the traditional parsing and immediate constituents, he jumps to Chomskian syntax which he criticizes rather than elaborates.

Lexicology and semantics is dealt with in Chapter 4 by Sydney M. Lamb. He demonstrates his ability as an experienced pedagog. The presentation and development of his lecture is superb. But he never mentions someone else's theory including generative semantics which is quite popular nowadays, or refers to any other authors for that matter. From the outset he states, "Some of the phenomena which must be accounted for...(1) a word can have more than one meaning...(2) Different words can have the same meaning (e.g., *big-large*). (3) The meanings of some words can be analized into the components *female* and *horse*. (4) Certain combinations of words have meanings which are different from the combination of their separate meanings. An example is *blow up*....(5) Some pairs of words have opposite meanings...(6) The meaning of some words are included in the meanings of others. For example, the meaning of *plant* is included in that of *tree*,.... (p. 45)."

Chapter 5 written by Harry Hoijer defers the various theories of the title, "The Origin of Language" to the end of the chapter. Instead, he presents his own theory after some introductory remarks. He observes: "It is now clear that the problem of the origin of language is not to be solved by a study of older records or by comparing the languages of the world with each other. We must, instead, approach the problem not only with linguistic studies, but also with the help of the total context of man's biological and cultural evolution. The beginning of language—a stage of evolutionary development that we might call prelanguage—may well have taken place along hominoids (pp. 59-60)."

He then distinguishes the communicative systems of the modern apes and the hominoids which he calls closed repertories of calls from those of man's language which he calls an open system, on the basis that man is capable of producing an almost infinite number of utterances (p. 60).

Chapter 6, was written by Henry M. Hoeningswald under the title "Our Own Family of Languages." After a long introductory remarks in which he discusses topics such as typology, language division. he begins to enumerate all sister languages and decendants of Indo-European (p, t, k, qu, m, n, r, l, w, y, and the syllabic r), discussing verb conjugation, word order, the division of satem-centum, etc. It is unfortunate that two words are misprinted (*with* on page 68, and *by* on page 77), and no diagrams are utilized for the sketch of ancestry of English.

Hans Kurath writes on "Some Aspects of the History of the English Language" in Chapter 7. Though his description of the given title is proportionate enough to accommodate all historical periods in the limited space, practically no comment is made on the present day British English, except for a few lines on page 84. On the contrary, he assigns four pages (84-88) to the description of American dialects with which he is familiar as one who supervised the Linguistic Atlas.

Chapter 8, contributed by Raven I. McDavid, Jr., deals with "Dialects: British and American Standard and Nonstandard." A dialect is any habitual variety of a language, regional or social. The first explanation of regional differences is the nature of the original settlement. In North America, many features of Eastern New England speech—notably the loss of /-r/ in *beard* are explained by the large proportion of East Anglians among the early setllers. Political, commercial, and educational forces also influence dialect patterns (p. 93). As an authority on dialectology, the writer covers the whole gamut of the subject, beginning with British dialects, to Canadian and Australian British speech.

Chapter 9, contributed by Henry Lee Smith, Jr., deals with "Speech and the Total System of Communication." Language is a learned, shared, and arbitrary system of vocal symbols through which human beings in the same speech community interact and hence communicate in terms of their common cultural experience and expectations (p. 104). Kinesics is a kind of communication (p. 106), and structured use of bodily motion is universally present in human culture (p. 107). Paralanguage, subsidiary means of human communication, is subdivided into (1) vocalizations, (2) vocal qualifiers and (3) vocal segregates, under the last of which may come such expressions as *uh uh* and *uh huh*, a form of dissent and assent.

The writer's presentation of the theory is both illuminating and convincing. But his too neat 3×3 symmetrical pattern of vocal qualifiers remind one of his symmetrical array of an *Outline* (1951).

Einer Haugen writes on "National and International Languages" in Chapter 10. Though people who are looking for easy solution to the world's problems have advocated that everyone should learn English, or if not English, then some artificial and neutral language like Esperanto, but the world is not ready for such solution and that it would be utopian to try to put it into effects (p. 120).

He also observes that each political unit has seen a vital part of its national policy to lie in cultivating its national language (p. 126), and every standard language of the past

has acquired its strength from the power of the nations that used it (p. 128). His overall historical survey of the subject is very informative.

Chapter 11 is entitled "Linguistics and Instruction in the Native Language." Written by Albert H. Marckwardt, pedagog and linguist, this chapter devotes practically all pages to the state of English teaching in the United States solely in terms of application of linguistics, totally ignoring psychological relevance. He first points out the linguistic uniformity rather than diversity in the United States. He emphasizes distinction between spoken and written language, and between what is taught directly in the classroom and what the teacher should know as background and context for his teaching activities (p. 136, p. 139). An important purpose of teaching one's national language is to impose standard form of speech on those who are constantly exposed to nonstandard speech outside of the classroom (p. 131, p. 141). He is skeptical about the possible application of TG grammarian's analytic method though many linguists today advocates it (p. 141). He observes that "there will be no miracles in native language instruction" though "the knowledge of language which linguistics provides can...aid the teacher in coping with many of the language problems that arise."

Thomas Pyles treats the title "Dictionaries and Usage" in Chapter 12. Noah Webster did not have a really expert knowledge of all the languages with which he claimed familiarity (p. 146). Three of a half dozen dictionaries in circulation in America today bear Webster's name, i.e., the dictionaries of American English, the Dictionary of Americanisms, the Dictionary of American Regional English with which Webster had nothing to do.

Some problematic usages listed are *he don't, ain't I, due to, these* (or *those*) *kind* (or *sort*), *the reason is because, different than* (to), the omission of *shall-will* distinction, split infinitive, *like* introducing a clause, supposed misuse of *who* for *whom*.

All these locutions actually occur, some...in the discourse of educated speakers (p. 151). The writer defines good English as the usage of those whom we expect to speak and write good English found in the *Oxford English Dictionary*, Jespersen's *Modern English Grammar*, *College English*, etc.

Chapter 13, written by David DeCamp deals with the title "Linguistics and Teaching Foreign Languages." Undefiled by extremist attitude, the writer took the middle-of-the road position when the structuralist and the transformationalist were engaged in duel. DeCamp proposes five stages of teaching; (1) recognition, (2) imitation, (3) repetition, (4) variation, and (5) selection. "The core of all good language teaching is still active

pattern drill (p. 163). Three kinds of variation drill are substitution drills, transformation drills, and combinatory drills.

Norman A McQuown writes on "Linguistics and Anthropology" in Chapter 14. From the point of view of an anthropologist, the field of linguistics is a subfield of anthropology, and a most important one, whose successful pursuit is a prerequisite to effective work in certain anthropological subfields (p. 172).

The writer describes some universal features of man and language and the communicative behaviour of other animals and many new discoveries made in various parts of the world, both anthropological and linguistic, such as microanalysis of the significant patterns of speech and body motion, i.e., paralinguistics or kinesics.

Chapter 15 which deals with language and psychology was contributed by John B. Carrol, who recognizes B. F. Skinner's theory, is one of those who claim that no totally new learning theory is required to account for the child's learning of language (p. 187). An adult's acquisition of foreign language is different from that of a child. There has been little success in explaining language behaviour neurologically (p. 188). It is far better to keep to a behavioral level of explanation, relying on careful observation of normal speech behaviour (p. 189), though it has its limitations, for one cannot control conditions as well as one can in a formal experiment (p. 191).

The writer introduces Roger Brown's TOT method as one of such devices, and then Osgood's semanitc differential, and Whorf's linguistic relativity.

In Chapter 16, Curtis W. Hays writes on "Linguistics and Literature: Prose and Poetry." After a brief explication of a TG grammar in layman's terms, the writer first introduces Samuel Levin's framework provided by TG grammar to account for certain deviant utterances found in poetry, such as "It is a hungry dance" (p. 201). Levin's observation based on TG that *a grief ago* is more grammatical than *he danced his did*, though supported by the writer, is not quite convincing.

The writer also introduces Richard Ohman's analysis of literary style on the early model of TG grammar. He finally presents his own method of analysis which is basically the procedure of "rewriting" a textual sentence into a series of simple source sentences. I am sorry that he did not mention anything about the relevance of phonology to poetry.

Chapter 17, on "Machine Translation" written by Winfred P. Lehmann is an easy, step by step description of the limitation and promise of the present state of machine trans-

lation as developed in the United States. Machine translation is needed since man cannot translate a technical material so quickly and so honestly as a machine can (p. 220) to keep abreast of modern developments. Finally the writer observes that translation by computer is only one of the steps which will achieve the control of the masses of information now available in a great number of languages.

Chapter 18, contributed by Wayne Tosh, treats "Computer Linguistics" as it is applied in various areas as morphology and syntax, dictionaries, communications, comparative application, language teaching and testing, etc. The writer tries to introduce as many activities as possible throughout the United States.

Chapter 19, contributed by Francis Ingemann, illustrates all kinds of research techniques on simulated speech, including PAT, Pattern Playback, and spectrogram. Photographic illustrations might have enriched the content of the article.

In Chapter 20, J. C. Catford discusses J. R. Firth and British linguistics. In the early years British school put its emphasis on phonetics, lexicography and dialectology. Some of the characteristic features of Firth's theory of language include his theory of meaning; his analysis of language in terms of levels and of structure and system, and his phonological theory, all of which are quite peculiar and foreign to an outsider. It is hard to criticize Firthian theory since it is expressed in a language which was not crystal clear as Catford himself laments (p. 256).

The Prague School of Linguistics was discussed in Chapter 21 by Paul Garvin, who attempts to explicate as precisely as possible Trubetzkoy's phonology inherited from Bühler's conception of the three functions, Mathesius theory of theme and rhyme in syntax, finally Mukarovsky's esthetic function, the last of which seems to be quite irrelevant to the topic of the chapter. Archiphoneme is not mentioned. Jakobson and Vachek were barely mentioned by name only.

Eric P. Hamp discusses American Schools of Linguistics (other than generative-transf-formational) in Chapter 22, which has developed in closed association with anthropology. Some characteristics of this school include techniques of data collection, bi-uniqueness, rejection of language universals, separation of levels, etc. Tagmemics and immediate constituents are also briefly discussed (p. 278-279). His observation of various opinion on phonological features is especially interesting (p. 278).

Francis Whitfield deals with glossematics in Chapter 23. The position of this immanent linguistics cannot find an anchor in some universal science of meaning or in some universal

science of sounds. Each language provides two patterns of its own—one for the universe of meaning and one for the universe of possible speech-sounds...is used for the expression of meaning (p. 288).

Some of the consequences of this approach: (1) The larger unit must be defined before the smaller ones. (2) It devides any given text into expression and content. (3) It aims at nothing less than a universal grammar, from which may be deduced the grammars of actually attested languages (p. 291).

Since the theory itself is too abstract and unrealistic the writer's description of the theory is not at all convincing. Apparantly Chapter 24, which deals with generative grammar, was written by a wrong person; Robert P. Stockwell talks about the given subject as a critic rather than as an explicator. He seems to equate Chomsky's division between competence and performance as de Suasure's langue and parole (p. 296). But he decribes clearly the notion of deep structure in easy terms (pp. 129-300), exemplifying the surface manifestation of the underlying structure by means of dialectal variation between American English and British English as found in an answer to the question "Will you solve this problem for me?" The normal answer in American English would be "Yes, I will" as opposed to British "Yes, I will do" (p. 301). No theories of generative semantics are introduced.

In the last chapter, the editor attempts to interrelate the topics, to bridge the gap between differing opinions. As an editor such an attitude must be inevitable and desirable though he is one of neo-Bloomfieldians himself. However, it must be a laborious task to do justice to all the 24 chapters because one linguist cannot be an expert on the twenty-four topics. Thus his review or summary might have irritated the individual writers whose theory or explication of each field has been distorted or overly simplified. It is notorious that linguists misunderstand one another because of the differing terminologies.

This book has all the merits and demerits which a forum lecture series may have. But it is to be read by both experts and laymen as it covers the whole gamut of modern linguistics up to 1969.